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We may be permitted to state that the views of our contributors and correspondents do not necessarily reflect the policy of the Wednesday Review.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

There seems to be much of blind leading the blind in the doings of what is called the people's committee which has been constituted, we are told, by the Punjab leaders, shall we say pleaders, to collect evidence to be placed before the Hunter Committee. The decision of the leaders to boycott the Hunter Committee for the reason that the Government could not see their way to accept the terms *in toto* dictated to them in regard to the release of some prisoners on parole for the purpose of giving evidence, is as short-sighted as it is unwise. The Government have shown an anxiety to meet the demands half-way but the Congress leaders' idea of a compromise is to have one side accept the conditions of another without reservation. It is not quite fair to tell the Government that they will not have anything to do with the inquiry of the Committee, so long as the Government do not yield to all the points raised by the Congress leaders. The Conressmen are proceeding on a wrong track altogether and they are, perhaps, unconscious of the harm they are doing to the cause which they have espoused by an attitude which can only be called unreasonable. They do not realise that their decision to boycott the Hunter Committee will be interpreted as a clever backing out of an undertaking which, if carried out, may not prove to be to their interests. The Congress committee wanted the Punjab Government to release on parole certain individuals now in prison for the duration of the inquiry, so that they may assist the people's committee in collecting evidence.

But the Government have not altogether refused the request and they have agreed to relase them for the days on which their evidence might be called for. The Congress committee cannot expect to have it all their own way and they do not seem to appreciate the true spirit of a compromise. Instead of trying to make the best of their case they are complicating the whole issue by an attitude which however much it may flatter their *amour propre* will not help in arriving at correct conclusions about the Punjab disorders. It is preposterous to suggest that because certain men now undergoing imprisonment are not allowed to go about as they choose no evidence can be collected worth placing before the Hunter Committee. We dare say the Congress leaders have been able to collect a mass of evidence which they may well place before the Hunter Committee and indeed, some of those who loomed large during the disorders have already given evidence before the demand for the release of prisoners unconditionally was preferred to the Government. It is curious that this idea of demanding the release

should have struck them only after some evidence has been let in. If they had made such a demand before the Hunter Committee began the inquiry, it would not have been open to suspicions of sorts, through there might not be general agreement as to the reasonableness of such a demand. It is yet time to correct the mistake and let in evidence so that the Hunter Commmittee might have the benefit of the evidence of both officials and non-officials. It is only then the Committee will be able to come to a right judgment in the matter, and if now the judgment of the Committee should go against the Punjab leaders they will have to thank themselves for the result.

The convocation address delivered by the Hon. Rev. Macphail is remarkable both for its brevity and its weightiness. It is difficult to make a convocation address original and interesting especially as the orator on the occasion has to confine himself to certain well-defined grooves. He is asked to advise the new graduates as to how they should conduct themselves as befitting their position and attainments and to the credit of the *Alma Mater*. Perhaps, the work was easy enough for those who were asked to deliver the customary address in the early years of the University. In fact, those who came after them were considerably handicapped and only now and again some one with more resourcefulness than the rest would rise above the common rut and deliver something memorable. Rev. Mr. Macphail has not attempted to tender the usual advice which though extremely useful to the new graduates, does not distinguish one address from another. The central note of Mr. Macphail's address is that the graduates who, whatever their sphere of activity will have to face the problems of reconstruction, should be able to see things as they are. It may not strike one as a difficult matter to see things as they are. As a fact, 99 people out of 100 whom we meet cannot, and that is why we have a number of faddists among us who cannot see things in their true perspective and try to make others also view things obliquely. The work of reconstruction wherever it has to be done, requires as an essential condition that those who undertake it have no illusion. While every one repeats it as a parrot cry that the world is changing he is not able to tell us how and where. There is only a vague idea that something abnormal is going on and he must have a hand in it. How many people who are posing as reformers have started reforming, at any rate speaking about reform, with the idea that he present war has revolutionised the whole outlook of the world and the people are breathing an atmosphere which was not their portion five years ago. All that has been taken for granted and imposing schemes of reform come hurtling through the air. Only it is difficult for us to have an exact picture of these edifices, most of them have an imaginary existence and are the creations of the busy brains of somebody who without knowing what particular reform is necessary merely proposes that the whole world be reformed out of all recognition.

To those who are ambitious of reforming the world we commend the warning uttered by Mr. Macphail, that change does not always necessarily mean the somewhat indefinite thing called progress. He instanced the remark of a lawyer friend of his who when a proposal for reform was made used to ask himself three questions ; were conditions such as to demand a change, would the proposed change remedy the evils complained of and whether it would bring in its train evils greater than those which it was being introduced to remedy. These questions though absolutely relevant to any scheme of reform and require to be answered satisfactorily before it is sought to be carried out, are generally speaking quietly ignored. May we apply the test prescribed by Mr. Macphail or his lawyer friend to be more accurate, to the scheme of reform which Mr. Montagu and his friends are striving to impose upon this country. We are afraid that these doubts never troubled the reformers and that is why they have been going on with their self-imposed task gaily and without much thought. What is worse, some of these questions seem to have exercised the mind of Mr. Montagu and that of his co-adjutor Lord Chelmsford, while they were engaged in drawing up the Joint-Report. On every page there is evidence that they were not quite satisfied with the material in hand, but they have conveniently tried to ignore the paucity, if not the complete absence of, those conditions whose existence alone can contribute to the success of a scheme of reform like that which we are asked to accept now. And with an optimism dangerous in the extreme, they have drawn up between them a scheme which advocates changes which are more likely to bring in their train more evils than they are expected to remedy. The Joint Committee has taken for granted that the Secretary of State's recommendations have been based upon a correct apprehension of the situation in India and all they have to do is to work in the details. Even when a small change is sought to be introduced, if the questions propounded by Mr. Macphail have to be asked and answered, it is really surprising that such a far-reaching scheme of reform should have been manufactured by a set of faddists and efforts made to impose it upon this country under the sanction and the authority of Parliament. Even now it may not be too late for those independant members of Parliament who may not have pledged themselves to support Mr. Montagu in all that he may say or do about India to ask themselves the

changes proposed have been demanded in India, if the conditions existed for their proper working and if they would not bring in their train more evils than Mr. Montagu has set out to cure.

The Secretary of State in his despatch dated 29th September has accepted the two principles which form the key-note of the recommendations of the Industries Commission, namely; in future the Government should play an active part in the industrial development of the country and secondly that it cannot undertake this work unless provided with sufficient administrative equipment and forearmed with reliable scientific and technical advice. From the despatch of the Secretary of State it would appear that the Government of India will confine themselves at present to the opening of a Stores Department. If that should be about the only outcome of the labours of the Industries Commission there will be serious disappointment felt in this country. Our experience of the results of a big commission of enquiry has been rather discouraging. A Commission of experts go into a big question and write a voluminous, erudite, but very often unreadable report which after attracting some amount of public attention results in a despatch or two, only to be pigeon-holed after a short while. Although one should feel grateful to the Industries Commission for their conscientious labours, we do not think that their report is going to revolutionise our industries and set us directly on the path to industrial greatness. It is not possible for a commission or for their report to create conditions which may not exist and which may require a long number of years to come into existence. It is said that the morals of a nation are not improved by an Act of Parliament. So too the development of our industries will not be assured by the circumstance of a commission drawing up an elaborate report. What has to be done is to create those conditions which alone can make the starting of industries possible. It is no doubt difficult to apportion between the State and private agencies their irrespective shares in the task. In India, we are so peculiarly situated that no institution thrives, no enterprise succeeds, if it has not some sort of official backing behind it. It may not be quite complimentary to a people, but that is a factor which has to be taken into account in any scheme of industrial development. Perhaps, according to the strict canons of political economy it may not be desirable for the State to take upon itself the work of industrial development and have a commercial department to its activities. Such an undertaking may be an unfair competition and may not prove in the long run to be a wholesome policy. But the conditions here make it necessary that the State should take the initiative in all industrial matters and when a particular industry has arrived at a certain stage of development hand it over to private management. Anyway it not possible to lay down a hard and fast rule in the matter. Besides, what the State can do and must do in regrad to the industries we cannot say that private enterprice is as much in evidence as it ought to be. All that the leaders have hitherto been doing is to get up conferences wherein imposing papers are read by unpractical orators. This is about all that we have done in this respect excepting of course what enterprising merchants princes like the Tatas have done. It is not only in respect of big, ambitious industries but also of small industries a steady policy has to be pursued. Side by side with the starting of Industries there must also be a net-work of institutes where industrial training may be given to young men in the neighbourhood. For higher scientific and technical training a big technological institute may be necessary, but for a continent like India even half a dozen of such institutes cannot materially help in our industrial advancement. It may be not possible to hark back to the days of handloom where yarns may be spun to rural ballads much as Mr. Gandhi may yearn for them, but there is unlimited scope for the starting and developing of the smaller industries which do not require much capital outlay. In any industrial policy which the Government may adopt, its seeds should be sown in the remote villages or hamlets and worked on till the most populous centres are reached.

The *Englishman* writes:—We have been bombarded this week's mail with several letters from Germany from the same individual. What is his little game we do not know but for one thing he offers to make enquiries as to the events surrounding the deaths of soldiers who have disappeared; and he adds, mistakes in spelling and errors in grammar included: Many wounded or sick British or American soldiers died in Germany and if it is your desire to have their graves ornamented I do it to your satisfaction. For every wish you want to have fulfilled in Germany for every enquiry you like to make and for every advise you desire, please write to me, I will do my best for you." Another letter almost preaches a sermon thus: "You have yourself, I am sure, often questions to answer about certain circumstances in Germany or the East of the Europe. I can give you all the informations you desire. To eliminate hate for saving lives of our posterity seems to me worth to be considered and the best guarantee for the future can only be friendly relations between the two nations of Anglo-Saxon Origin—English and Germans. We must try to know each other better than before—this will make bloodshed impossible for our posterity. There are so many mutual interests between the two nations, that reconciliation can only be to the benefit of both sides."

THE
Wednesday Review

WEDNESDAY, 19 NOVEMBER, 1919.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN MADRAS.

We wish the Committee appointed by the Government of Madras to advise them on the best means of attracting a better class of students to the Coimbatore Agricultural College and the improvement of the training given there, had been asked to make recommendations on the improvement of agricultural education generally in the province. In spite of the excellent work in model farming and research that is being done by the Coimbatore College, it has been found that the institution has not been able to attract to itself a better class of students. It is partly due to the notion that for industrial and agricultural education, for that matter for any kind of education other than that relating to the learned professions, there is no need for a good grounding in general knowledge in the case of young men who seek admission into industrial institutes and agricultural schools. The so-called technical institutes in this province as elsewhere have not helped in the spread of industrial education, much less in the development of the industries, for the reason that they are no better than convenient asylums for the failures at the university. It is popularly thought that a boy who has proved himself unfit to have drilled into him the rudiments of the three Rs. is likely to bloom into a technical expert if he is admitted to one of these institutions. Probably some such notion has prevailed in making admissions to the Coimbatore Agricultural College. It may be as William Cobbett once said, that a farmer may know all about ploughing though he may not recognise the word if the letters, Plough, are written on a blackboard. But it cannot he denied even in the case of an expert farmer, ability to read and write will make him a beter farmer and enable him to take better care of himself and his belongings. But the object of a college like that at Coimbatore is much more ambitious than that of teaching the rudiments of knowledge to an illiterate farmer. The object of the institute is to qualify young men in sufficient numbers, to provide for the expansion of agricultural department, especially in the higher grades in it and to aid in the spread of agricultural knowledge. To achieve that end it will not do to admit young men who have had no sufficient grounding in general knowledge. The qualifications for admission ought to be easily higher. At least a complete certificate in the School Final should be the minimum qualification for admission. If it be thought that less qualifications will do, then it will be necessary to provide for a course of instruction in general knowledge, side by side with instruction in agriculture and allied subjects. After all, even by raising the qualifications for admission into the Agricultural College at Coimbatore it is not to be supposed that the problem of agricultural education will be solved. For a whole province it will not do to have a single college, however well equipped it may be. There should be a net-work of feeders in all important centres where agricultural education can be imparted side by side with general knowledge. It may be remembered that two years ago the Agricultural Educational Conference which met at Simla considered the subject in all its aspects and made certain recommendations and they also pointed out that in countries like Great Britain, Germany, Japan and the United States where agriculture has been adding largely to their wealth, agricultural education was receiving special attention from the Governments concerned. In Germany while the universities provide special facilities for agricultural research there are secondary agricultural schools, lower agricultural schools and county continuation schools where continuation classes on subjects connected with agriculture are held. In Great Britain the system is not so perfect, but the County Councils concern themselves with the education of the farmer. They arrange for short courses of lectures on particular subjects and demonstration at various centres. In America each State has its own policy in the matter, but the collective work of the States in agricultural development and education is really great. There each State has an agricultural college either run as a separate institution or attached to the university. We are told that the position of an agricultural college in the United States is that of a leader in agricultural education and co-ordinator of all other rural educative agencies. The generality of the country schools have for their object the education of the farmers, both boys and girls who are unable to take up an extensive college course, but who want to receive a training which will be useful to them when they go back to their home farms. There are other types of schools which have the same end view. It may be noted in this connection that in these schools even in teaching arithmetic problems are chosen with special reference to farm inventories and accounts, land measurements and mixing fertilisers. In Japan they have made it obligatory on all children who are under instruction to be given training in agriculture also. In the majority of the schools agriculture regularly forms part of the curriculum, and from the elementary course up to the university classes agriculture is never omitted from the curri-

cula of studies. In the matter of education in agriculture it is really a far-cry to India from the countries which we have mentioned above, notwithstanding the fact that in India, unlike in those countries, about 90 per cent of the population live on agriculture. The absence of any system, compulsory or other, for the imparting of instruction in agriculture is a greatdraw back in the system of education in this country and what is now being done is, indeed, as nothing compared to our requirements.

THE SIX HOUR DAY.

By 'Workman.'

The Labour expedients for continually increasing wages, while diminishing the amount of work that will be rendered, when considered in connection with competition for the largest output of best quality, at cheapest prices, forms an interesting study on which a Scientific pronouncement is much to be desired. For the views entertained by the various parties engaged in the world's work that are sought to be given forcible effect in one direction are often opposed to those meeting them in other directions; such as those that end in conflict and the upset of all organisation and order. Meanwhile, suggestions for betterment of conditions that will prevent unemployment and secure a constant good market for the products of labour are often offered, that naturally take us out of National into International questions of Demand and Supply and that can only be steadied by Universal Co-operation to secure Peace and World Government on sane lines.

The Limit to success in our Economic expansion then depends on Political Strategy and Tactics, which if not worked from a centre of information, instruction, and administration—like The League of Nations,—merely means demoralising competition, keeping the world in a state of secret civil war, that ends in periodical catastrophes.

When we know this, while admitting competition of working agencies both large and small as a useful factor in saving us from the exactions of monopolists, we may soon see where the 'useful limit' of competition comes in; and the value of proposals designed to benefit ourselves, which turn out disappointing in the long run, because they injure somebody else.

Demand and Supply are variable quantities. The nearest approximation to constancy in supply is the Universal Food Crop. But its reaching all consumers depends on the freedom and efficiency of the distribution. The Political and Financial Economists compete to command this. While Nationality is concerned to preserve itself against any monopoly of power or profit that might arise from this cause. Hence the world combination against German attempts to command the world, and secure monopolies.

The attempt had for its inception the power of Science and Machinery of all sorts. Machinery does not take the place of food, but is useful in diminishing the cost of labour in producing everything, and cheapening it by abundant supplies. But supplies may be in excess of demand, with a great activity in the competition to supply world markets. This actually happens periodically. Factories then must slow down when demand slackens. But what is to be done about unemployment and a reduction of wages at such times. This is the great problem everybody wants solved.

If food and necessaries are abundant through overproduction, things should be cheap; and hours together with wages might be reduced to each individual without hardship. But Wages in different countries differ greatly, and also prices. Japan with the latest thing in Machinery,—people with frugal habits, and contentment with a low wage,—is in a position to compete against Europe and America. And if India, China, and other countries enter the competition, then Wages in Europe and America must come down or they must go up in other countries to equalise competition. Either this, or Europe and America, which had the strat in supplying the world with manufactures, must rely on Machinery to preserve it. This is what is being attempted by working Factories in Shifts of Labour.

If the single 8 hour day for working the Factory, is replaced by two shifts, working it 6 hours each, the factory output should be increased by 4 hours of extra work, being an increase of 50 per cent. But just at present, labor at home is asking the same (war) wages for 6 hours as paid previously for 8. Result; employment is found for double the number of men daily in the same Factory; but while the wages bill is doubled, the output of work is increased by 50 percent only, and the cost of a unit must be increased as 1. to 2/1½ or 1.33 for labour.

On the other hand Labour says, yes; but the factory turns out 33 percent more per day, or month or year; and the interest on the cost of the buildings, Works, and depreciation of the solid parts of the machinery is reduced to 1/1·30 or ·75, being 75 percent per unit of outturn, while prices remaining the same, the profits must be increased 33 per cent.

How far these calculations may be applicable in every case evidently depends on world demand and supply at any time. And again; with the universal introduction of machinery, the inevitable levelling up of potentiality of all Nations is gradually taking place.

The process may be retarded by the meddling of agitators within, taking only a limited survey of Economic question, or by Foreign unscrupulous

competitors, knowing the advantage of causing trouble in producing for the world markets, by inciting to strikes for high wages and short hours, whereas the conditions are different in every country, and local governments could not do better than protect themselves and their peoples against these insidious tactics on the part of competitors.

If we want an example of the great success of the 6 hour shift movement we can find it in an account of 'Sun light Soap' appearing in the '*World's Work*' for June last. The expert in Factory business will there see the proportions to which a Business can grow applied to the manufacture of a small toilet requisite in wide demand; and how the management can in such cases provide benefits for the workers, that actually add to the efficiency and economical working of the Factory, with its numerous distributing branches.

But we have to be careful when Lord Leverholm the proprietor states as a scientific postulate of general application to World Political economy that he believes in the infallibility of high wages and short hours. The League of Nations will accept no dogmas of any Nation that it is sought to impose on any other, which tends to limit the action of its own Capital and Labour in producing commodities of superior excellence and at lowest prices for world markets.

In the competition for this purpose it is certain that the best known methods will be copied as found applicable to local conditions. But any attempt to stop this competition is only a way to confirming those in their temporary monopoly of the World Market, that their activity and enterprize has procured for them.

SILENCE.

Words are too poor to honour you,
Our Glorious Dead,
Khaki and blue, brave men and true:
So the King has ordered silence
For minutes two instead.
First the booming of the cannon:
—,T was the last sound that you heard—
Then throughout the British Empire
A hush profound and undisturbed.
Silent we stand and recall you,
Our Glorious Dead.
Dim your faces, messmates in blue,
Comrades in khaki shadows all;
Never a word is said.
Quick, for the minutes are speeding!
Have you a message to give?
Speak 'ere the din recommences,
And we quit you and once more live.
Hail to you, spirits resplendent,
Our Glorious Dead.
Radiant, glowing, transcendent,
You need nought that we can offer,
You, who died in our stead,
Sailors, soldiers, brave and true,
We love you, the King honours you
And God has honoured you too,

CLAIRE SCOTT, in the *Madras Mail.*

TOPICS FROM PERIODICALS.

SUBMARINES AND THEIR HISTORY.

Mr. Ikbal Alishah writes in the *Hindustan Review*:–

The submarine warfare, which characterised the present conflict on the sea, will always remain a bloodstain on Germany's garments, and many are the tales of horror that will be told to generations yet unborn.

These boats have come to be used in modern times, yet their origin can be traced to a very early period in the history of the world. In the medieval age some writers have touched upon the subject and declare the possibility of constructing a submarine, others have let their fancy run riot and spun tales of submerged boats, and Alexander the Great figures in them as a hero. Beyond this all was void, and the question was not dealt with in the light of practical science.

But early in the sixteenth century an account approaching some significance and accuracy is noticed, and it is mentioned that a certain clan belonging to Ukraine manufactured such a boat to escape from its Turkish pursuers.

Another instance occurred during the same time when Cornelius Van Drebbel made some experiments with a model of submarine in the Thames. His boat is said to have contained twelve rowers excepting passengers, and that King James I, went on board himself. Van Drebbel's experiment created a world wide interest, and as is often the case in the beginning of such inventions, only misleading information is available as to the admittance of the air in the boat. Boyle tells us that Van Drebbel had found out a liquid which purified the breathed air. carbon dioxide was destroyed, and the air was kept perpetually fresh inside the boat. But such a pretension is incredible. Mersenne, who spoke of this activity in London in 1644, mentions the means devised to light the boat by means of glass, horn, and pebbles and says that a leather tube was used for the admittance of air, but does not hint on the wonderful liquid.

Mersenne will always retain his position as a great worker in this cause, and in his treatise he speaks of ships made of metal or wood, which should move by means of wheels on the bottom of the ocean, where the waters are not deep enough to be rowed by oars. The shape of such a ship, he thought, ought to be like a fish, and the oars broad to move it downwards or upwards, backwards or forwards. He described a submarine to

be a homely concern, where as the ship rolled on, the crew may engage themselves in domestic pursuits of grinding the corn, baking the bread, and the like, and thus might remain for months under the sea. 'How easy' he exclaimed, 'it would be for them to reach the North and South Poles in this way, as it is well known that the water in the bottom of the sea never freezes.'

A few years after Mersenne Bishop Wilkins made experiments. His style is very much after Mersenne, but his objects are of a more war like character, for he thought of going down and blowing up other ships. This was carried out in the Thames in the senventeenth Century by Dr. Desaguliers, and in 1777 an American performed the explosive feats with dexterity in the river Delaware. Bushnell, an experimenter of American descent, constructed his boat with ingenuity, its shape was like a flattened walnut or a gigantic tortoise.

There were no methods of providing air, and when it was consumed, the boat had to come up for a fresh supply. The arrangements for rising and sinking were manipulated by rods; one of these rods moved a sort of sprial oar, shaped like an endless screw, and by turning this, the boat either came up or went down. Another was horizontal, which moved the vessel backwards or forwards. Specific gravity was maintained by admitting the water inside the boat, and then forcing it out. A large quantity of lead was attached to the bottom of the boat, and of this, portions of the blocks of lead could be detached, which left the boat light enough to rise in cases of emergency.

Fulton another experimenter, in 1801, worked Bushnell's plan, and added to their efficiency by having a copper vessel full of condensed air. Capt Montgery proposed to build a man of war called 'Invincible,' but we are not aware of the execution of his idea. The most interesting attempt in submarine navigation was when a man named Johnston constructed a submarine to liberate Emperor Napolean and to convey him to America. The vessel, curiously enough, was secretly built in the Thames, but his plans were discovered, and in the meantime the captive Emperor died. The last of Johnston was that he was employed by the British Government to make experiments with a view to destroying the French fleet at Cadiz.

The early Arabs too seemed to know the art, for as far back as the reign of Khalifa 'Mavia' a Persian navigator wrote a treastise on the making of boats which could travel under the stream, and in his works he often speaks of 'Ghowwasa' a boat that dives.

EARLY COLDS.

Be careful of the colds you take at this time of the year. They are particularly dangerous. A neglected cold may mean a winter-long cold. Take Chamberlain,s Cough Remedy at once. For sale by all chemists and storekeepers.

THE LAST KING OF SYLHET.

In a part of the city of Sylhet, called Muhallah Toltakar, lived a Muhammadan named Burhanuddin. How a Muhammadan came to be allowed to live in the city of Sylhet in that age when the borderland between a Hindu and a Muhammadan Kingdom used to be a sort of no man's land and when there was not much toleration among the votaries of either faith, is very difficult to understand. It also puzzled the historian Muhaiuddin at the unknown age when he composed his *Risalat*. Muhaiuddin tries to explain thisdifficulty by stating that this solitary believer in the Muhammadan faith must have been the member of some Hindu family, a statement which is exceedingly difficult to believe, because, so far as the progress of Muhammadanism in India is known, very few Indians voluntarily embraced the Musalman faith before the final conquest of any part of the country. But whatever be the value of this tradition in the eye of the critical scholar, we have to take it as we receive it. There was this Burhanuddin, a Musalman residing in the Hindu city of Sylhet, in the Hindu kingdom of Sylhet. Burhanuddin had made a vow that if he was blessed with a son he would sacrifice a cow. A son being born, he performed his vow, but as bad luck would have it, a kite carried off a portion of the flesh and dropped it in the house of a Brahman. The incensed Brahmen went to Guar Gobind, the king of Sylhet and complained. The king sent for Burhan and the child; and on the former confessing that he had killed a cow, the child was ordered to be put to death, and the right hand of the father cut off.

So went the legend among Muhammadans when the otherwise unknown historian Muhaiuddin chronicled it faithfully. A very large portion of it appears to consist of later fabrication. In the first place it was impossible for a Muhammadan to live undisguised in an unconquered Hindu State (I mean a Hindu State which not having been defeated by any Muhammadan army treated Muhammadan subjects according to the Hindu Law of Crimes as the king's judgment on Burhanuddin testifies) for any length of time. He would be regarded with suspicion and either killed by an infuriated people or as a spy. In the second place, I consider it almost impossible for a single man to slaughter a cow. A cow is not a goat. The killing is attended with struggle and noise, which is likely to attract a good deal of attention in a Hindu city. In the third place it cannot be believed for a moment that a piece of beef carried by a kite and dropped in a Brahman's house could be recognised as beef by a Hindu in those days. I dare say it is impossible to regard a fifteenth century Brahman as a connoisseur of good beef. The tradition recorded at some unknown period by the historian Muhaiuddin, unless it is entirely a fabrication, suggests the following probabilities:

(1) That Burhanuddin was a Muhammadan spy residing in disguise in Sylhet.

(2) That he sacrificed a cow to provoke hostilities.

The vow and the punishment are either contemporary falsehoods or later fabrications.

The chronicler continues:

"Burhanuddin left Sylhet and proceeded to the court of Gaur. The king on hearing what had occured ordered his nephew Sultan Sikandar to march at once towards the Brahmaputra and Sunargon with an army.

"When news reached Sylhet that an army was approaching, Gaur Gobind, who was a powerful magician, assembled a host of devils and sent them against the invaders. In the battle that ensued the Muhammadans were routed and Sultan Sikandar with Burhanuddin fled. The prince wrote to his uncle informing him of the defeat and of the difficulties met with in waging war with such foes. The monarch on receiving the news gathered together the astrologers and conjurers and ordered them to prophesy what sucess would attend a new campaign. Their reply was encouraging and Nasiruddin Sipahsalar was directed to march with a force to the assistance of Sultan Sikandar. The reinforcement hower did not restore courage to the Muhammadan soldiery and it was decided to consult with Shah Jalal who with 360 Darweshes was waging war on his own account with the infidels. The Sultan and Nasiruddin procceded to the camp of the saints where the Shah encouraged them by repeating a certain prayer and promised to join their army and annihilate the hitherto victorious army of devils."

The advance of this army of saints was irresistible. The devils could not prevail against them and Gaur Gobind driven from one position to another at last sought refuge in a seven-storied temple in Sylhet which had been built by magic The invaders encompassed this temple and Shah Jalal prayed all day long. His prayers were so effective that each day one of the stories fell in and on the fourth day Gaur Gobind yielded on the promise of being allowed to leave the country.

"The terms agreed to, Gaur Gobind retired to the mountains (Kohistan)."

So runs the chronicle. Modern analysis of this story yielded the following facts:

(1) At the time of the conquest of Sylhet by the Muhammadans, Shah Jalal, the patron saint of Sylhet, was waging a religious war (*Jihad*) of his own account against the infidels of the country. This helps us to clear the mystery connected with Burhanuddin's residence in the Hindu town of Sylhet. Burhanuddin was the spy engaged by the holy Darweshes to reside in the Hindu capital and to report on the state of the country, its defences, etc. He was most probably a Hindu renegade who spoke the dialect of the district. The cow-slaughter was a deliberate act to provoke war. Even now the sacrifice of cows is prohibited by many Hindu States in India. The holy darweshes seem to have found it difficult to prosecute the religious war against the infidels of Sylhet and to have resorted to this little stratagem to enlist the sympathies of the Sultan of Bengal whose capital was at Gaur.

R. D. BANERJI, *in the Modern Review.*

NEW ARABIAN RAILWAY.

A recent American Consular report gives some interesting particulars of a railway from Aden to Lahej, which was recently opened says a writer in "The Near East." The road is about 30 miles in length, and is the development of a short military line built from Aden to Sheik Othman in 1915 to supply British forces operating from the latter place against the Turks. The railroad was built by the Royal Engineers of the British Army, and the first few miles were built under shell-fire from the Turks. After the signing of the Armistice and the surrender of the Turkish forces, the railway was continued to Lahej; and has been recently opened for freight and passenger traffic.

At the pressnt time one train a day each way is operated, and these trains are well patronised. The passenger rates are approximately 1½d., a mile for first class, ¾d., for second class, and ¼d. for third. Freight rates on coffee and skins average about 2d. per ten mile, whereas the average 10d. per ten mile by camel caravan to Aden. The railway is a narrow gauge, and the equipment is largely from the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. As conditions improve and the amount of traffic increases it is likely that new equipment will be needed to replace the second-hand rolling stock.

All the way from Aden to Lahej the track is laid over fairly even ground, and the elevation increases very gradually. There are no bridges and few culverts To Sheik Othman the distance is about 9 miles, and Lahej, is about 15 miles, farther, over fairly level desert of shifting sand. Approaching Lahej the sandy surface becomes harder, and there is extensive cultivation by irrigation through the use of the supply of water from the Tiban River, which comes down from the Yemen Mountain and divides 5 miles before it reaches Lahej Dates, grains, melons, and vegetables are the principal crops in the Lahej delta.

In normal times Aden, where nothing grows, was able to draw some supplies of vegetables and other fresh foodstuffs from Lahej. These supplies then came in by camel caravan, but can now come in more cheaply and more quickly by the railway Aden will thus benefit directly by having available a more plentiful supply of grain and other fresh foodstuffs.

Lahej has also been centre for the collection of considerable quantities of goat and sheep skins, hides and coffee, coming down by caravan from the fertile Yemen country to Aden for purchase by exporters. From Lahej to Aden the only method of transport was by camel caravan, and in the last normal trade year the Aden Port Trust statistics show that an average of nearly 500 camel loads of produce per day came into Aden by caravan. Some part of these loads came from the east. But a good share of them came in via Lahej. Over these same caravan routes there was exported annually from Aden to the interior, in normal trade years, practically £100,000 worth of cotton piece goods, raw tobacco, spices, and grains. The

number of camel loads (a camel load averages around 400 £.) of exports is not ascertainable, but it was large, judging from the value of the goods carried.

Aden is the first of all Arabian ports; and is further important as a commercial centre for the collection and distribution of goods from and to the territories on both sides of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. Owing to its superior advantages as a port it has long received a large share of the skins, hides, coffee, and other produce from the Yemen and other less important parts of the hinterland. The centre and capital of the rich and watered Yeman Plateau is Sana, which is about 200 miles north of Aden. Trade by caravan between Sanaa and Aden is said to have existed for many centuries, but in recent years, when speed in getting products to the coast has become more essential, some of the carvans have changed over from the Aden route to Hodeida, a port north of Aden, on the Red Sea, and about 150 miles from Sanaa.

THE HODEIDA-SANAA PROJECT.

Hodeida has been Turkish, and Aden has been and is British, and there has in recent years been much conjecture as to whether, by improving the former port and having better communication with the interior, it might not be possible to divert from Aden some of the business done by it with the Yemen. To this end a railroad from Hodeida to Sanaa was begun in 1906 by European engineers, using Turkish capital. Only a few miles of track were laid when the work stopped, and great supplies of railway material which had been brought in have since lain rusting on the shore near Hodeida. The matter of a railway from Aden to Sanaa had often been talked of, but owing to the longer distance as compared with Hodeida, and the possibly greater engineering difficulties when the mountains should be reached, no active step to build such a road had been taken. As already stated, the necessities of war resulted in the beginning of the Aden-Lahej Railway, and as the start has been made with 30 miles of track, it may be possible to develop sufficient interest to continue for the 170 miles into Sanaa. The Government has built the railway to Lahej and if it is continued private capital must, in all probability, carry it on.

The possibilities of profit in carrying the railway on from Lahej into the Yemen Mountains, and possibly to Sanaa, would seem most promising. The Yemen Plateau is well watered because of its altitude and the soil is said to be fertile. This district produces the world's supply of genuine Mocha coffee, and many kinds of grain are successfully grown, while tobacco, indigo. cotton, fruits, and vegetables are also produced. Large herds and flocks of cattle, sheep, and goats are kept, and supply an important quantity of hides. Mocha coffee; the skins known to the trade as mochas, and hides and skins from the Yeman, would seem to be the most important products so far as world commerce is interested.

While the quantities of these products hitherto supplied have been considerable they have naturally been limited by the difficulties of getting them to the coast for export, and by the further fact that the Arab farmer has had to devote much of his energy and attention to producing, as well, his own food supply. If he could get food from the outside which would be feasible if a railway were built, he would have more time and energy to devote to producing greater quantities of more profitable crop of fine Mocha coffee. He would incidentally want, and be able to buy, greater quantities of cotton piece goods ad other manufactures from the world markets. These facts suggest, briefly and generally, the attractive possibilities offered to an extension of the Aden-Lahej railway to Sanaa, praticularly as Hodeida-Sanaa Railway enterprise has for some years been abandoned, and is now obviously at a disadvantage compared with the Aden-Sanaa projects, Hodeida having been seriously damaged by bombardment during the war.

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SELECTION.

INDIA IN THE YEARS 1917-1918.

It will be necessary to begin with a short account of the present position. There are under 8 million pupils in all educational institutions of British India. This means that just 3 per cent. of the population is under instruction,—a percentage which proves to include roughly 5 per cent. of the males and 1 per cent. of the females of British India. As might have been conjectured from figures so low as these, it was found at the last census (1911) that under 6 per cent. of the population could read and write. The expenditure from all sources works out at under £8 millions, or 7¾*d.* per head of the population.

From the purely educational point of view, this state of affairs is sufficiently serious. But in the light of present political exigencies, it becomes a source of acute uneasiness. India is about to advance upon the road leading to the progressive realisation of responsible government. Electorates are to be brought suddenly into being. Indians of all classes will have to take a greater and greater share of public responsibilities—yet only six in every hundred could in 1911 achieve the very modest census standard of literacy. It must be plain that until the proportion of literates can be raised, the immense mass of the peoples of India will remain poor, ignorant and helpless far beyond the standards of Europe. Until education can be more generally diffused, it is idle to expect India to realise her immense industrial potentialities.

Disquieting as are these general figures, the seriousness of the present position of Indian education is still further revealed by an analysis of the proportions of the population undergoing different types of instruction. Statistics show that only about 2·4 per cent. of the population are enrolled in primary schools, and only 2·8 per cent. are undergoing elementary instruction of any kind. The corresponding figure for England and Wales is 17 per cent. ; but it is probable that this figure includes some pupils who are preparing for higher education. On the other hand, in secondary schools, ·5 per cent. of the population are enrolled, as compared with ·6 percent. in England and Wales. Considering the backwardness of female education, this figure is startling; if the male population of India alone is reckoned, no less than ·9 per cent. are found in secondary schools, a proportion far greater than that of England and Wales, and approximately equal to that of Germany before that war. Very significant too are the figures for University education. India has about ·025 per cent. of her population undergoing instruction of a University type, as against ·054 in England and Wales. But here, again, the female population of India has to be almost eliminated, so that India's proportion is really very high indeed. When single tracts, such as Bengal for example, are considered, this percentage heavy as it is, sometimes rises in a marked degree. In this province, the proportion of those undergoing University instruction to the population is equal to the proportion in the United Kingdom ; and if the female population of Bengal be left out of reckoning, the figure rises to the remarkable height of ·1 per cent.

Thus, while the lower classes in India are largely illiterate, the middle class, which is the class that mainly patronises the higher institutions, is numerically speaking educated to a pitch equal to that attained in countries whose social and economic conditions are more highly developed. This one-sided character of Indian education is not entirely the fault of Government. The earlier efforts of the East India Company were indeed directed to the encouragement of higher institutions established in towns, and to the conferring of western education upon the hereditary literate classes of Indian society. But the despatch of 1854 attempted to alter this state of affairs by laying special stress on elementry education, and since that time Government has done something to redeem its pledge. The weight of circumstances has told against the best intentions. The middle classes have found that higher education is a profitable thing, and they have made known in a emphatic manner their desire that this type of education should be expanded. Now the total funds available are limited, and though the lower classes are no longer hostile to primary education, they are luke:warm in its support and seldom press for its extension. As a natural result the supply of education has tended to follow the direction of the most pressing demand.

Not only is education in India almost monopolised by one class of the community, but in addition, such education as there is, appears to be conducted along extremely narrow lines. It is of a predominantly literary type. Only ·5 per cent. of the population are undergoing instruction in institutions which provide technical training. On the other hand, 2·5 per cent. of the population are to be found in non-teachnical institutions.

Of the £7¾ millions spent on education in India, £3 millions is spent on higher institutions for boys, £2 millions is spent on primary schools for boys, and only a meagre £·7 million on vocational institutions. Here again the demand has determined the nature of the supply. Literary courses lead to Government employ, and are a necessary preliminary to the study and practice of the law. They are adapted to the traditional methods of teaching and to the highly developed memorising facutly which characterises many Indian students. Technical and Industrial study offer a less lucrative career. But besides this, the slow growth of Industries and the shyness of capital in supporting industries act as great deterrents to technical education. Where industrial employment assured, it is believed that students would readily come forward and that technical institutions would multiply.

In addition to the foregoing, Indian education, as a whole, suffers from three principal defects. In the first place there is a serious lack of properly trained teachers. Only 30 per cent. of the total number have any training qualification. In primary schools, only 65,000 out of 220,000 are trained. In secondary schools, out of 60,000 only 20,000 have received training, and only 7,000 possess degrees. In the second place, the teaching profession in India is seriously underpaid. Often a man enters the teaching profession because he can find nothing else to do ; and pupils are as a rule instructed by a changing series of teachers who have not time to learn their trade, and put little heart into their works. In the third place, Indian education is entirely dominated by the examination system. The passing of an examination is essential for employment, and these examinations are almost wholly external. It is not that they are too many of them, but they are conducted on a large scale and too often from the only goal to be achieved by school and University instruction. The number of candidates continually grows, so that the standard tends to drop and the more inefficient schools to flourish. On the other hand, good institutions languish ; for any excellence which goes beyond the standard of the various examinations, and aims at doing more than passing the pupil is too often deemed by parents superfluous if not harmful.

The crux of the whole present position of Indian Education is financial. As is suggested by the fact that the total expenditure is 7¾*d.* per head, such education as exists tends to be cheap and inferior in quality. It is because education is cheaply run, that teachers are badly paid, that teaching is inefficient, that the subjects taught are out of touch with the vital needs of the pupils. To realise these difficulties more clearly a moment must be devoted to the consideration of educational finance.

As has been explained, elsewhere, the revenues taken by the Government of India are employed partly in central expenditure, and partly in re-distribution to provinces for expenditure upon objects which provincial revenues are unable to finance efficiently. Among those objects is education. Education is financed partly from public funds as has been noticed and partly from private funds. Under public funds fall those sums which are the produce of central or local taxation, while private funds include fees, endowments and subscriptions. Now of the £7¾ millions spent on education £2·7 millions comes from provincial and "imperial" funds, £1·5 millions from local funds, including

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transfers from provincial funds, and £1·3 millions from other sources, such as missionary bodies and charitable endowments. The balance of £2·1 millions comes from fees. Taking these endowments one by one we see that expenditure from provincial, including central funds, works out to 2½*d.* per head of population as compared with 7*s.* 9*d.*, in England and Wales. The amount found by local bodies such as Municipalities and District Boards is very small, for of the £1·5 millions which figures under this head, more than one half-comes from provincial or imperial grants handed over to local bodies for expenditure. Even so, the expenditure of local bodies upon education through all India amounts to no less than 25 per cent. of their total expenditure upon all heads. The exact figure varies from province to province. In Bombay and the North-West Frontier Province, the local bodies spend over 40 per cent. of their funds on education. In the United Province, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and Assam, the figure is about 30 per cent. ; in Bihar and Bengal it is about 20 per cent., and in Madras 15 per cent. It is generally said that the revenues of the local bodies are inexpansive; but there is reason to believe that in many parts of India the resources open to them have been insufficiently tapped. A writer who has carefully studied the economic conditions of a Bengal district declares that the local taxation yields to the local authorities only ½ per cent. of the total income of the population of that district. "The truth is," he writes, "that in Bengal not only is all taxation exceptionally light, but local taxation in particular is an insignificant burden upon the resources of the people; that the provision of local finances and material benefits is in consequence very inadequate, but that it cannot be improved unless larger sums are placed at the disposal of the local authorities."*

The amount contributed by fees, which is 28 per cent. of the total expenditure, seems at first sight very large. But its magnitude arises rather from the paucity of funds derived from other sources than from the rate of fees charged. The annual fee payable by a student averages £4 10*s.* per head in a college; £1 in a secondary school and 14*d.* in a primary school. The contributions from private sources such as missionary and other bodies constitute a very considerable proportion of the total expenditure.

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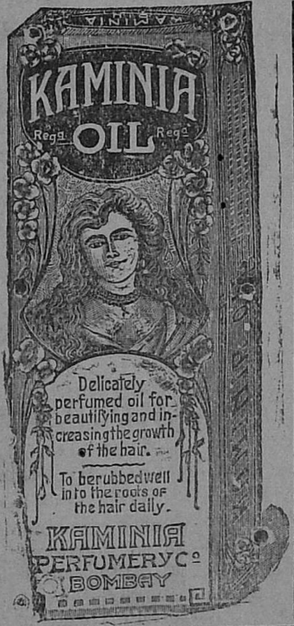

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